

7 ACADEMIC WRITING

FORMS OF ASSESSMENT

You will encounter a variety of different kinds of assessment at university. Particular kinds of assessment are favoured by different courses and subjects and these include essays, reports, case studies, oral presentations and exams. Each type of assessment will almost certainly require you to research a topic and present an argument based on evidence, showing that you can use ideas. You will have to produce the work to a deadline.

THE ESSAY

An essay is a piece of writing which is written to a set of writing conventions. There may be some particular conventions in your own subject area but the following advice will generally apply. Try and follow the stages below when writing assignments.



Approaching the Question

Read the question very carefully, underlining the key words. Be clear about what is being asked. What are the implications of the title? What ideas lie behind the title? What are you being invited to explore? These are commonly used terms:

- **Analyse** - consider all views, and describe their inter- relationship.
- **Compare** - examine points in question showing similarities or differences.
- **Define** - give a definition.
- **Discuss** - describe different aspects of the subject, and give a reasoned conclusion.
- **Evaluate** - examine different sides of the question and try to reach a conclusion.

Avoid the temptation to plunge straight into the reading list, and instead devote time to thinking hard about what the question is really asking of you. Consider all the aspects of the topic at hand, and decide what reading will be necessary in order to answer the question, making use of the reading list and other relevant course material. Remember: the task of the writer is to respond *to the question asked*, and you will need to demonstrate your ability to select material relevant to the subject.

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Essay Planning

There are 5 main steps which you need to take in order to plan the information for your essay.

- 1. Analyse the question and the keywords. Note the main topics that you are going to cover.**
▼
- 2. Divide any notes and ideas you already have into separate topics – using a separate sheet for each topic relevant to your question. These separate notes will form the separate main paragraphs of your essay once you have added to them with further research.**
▼
- 3. Rearrange your notes. Look at what you have and group related information, perhaps by colour coding with a felt pen, and arrange them in a logical order.**
▼
- 4. Write an outline plan using the topics you have arranged. Write your first plan before you have done any research and that will help you to be more selective and constructive in taking notes. It will focus your reading and you can adapt your plan as you go along.**
▼
- 5. Organise your information. With your colour-coded pile of notes divide them into paragraphs of different colours, underlining the main points. Having grouped the information in this way you can start writing your first draft. Each paragraph should have one main idea, with supporting evidence and elaboration from the same colour group of notes. In other words, each paragraph should relate to one set of notes.**

The Structure and Organisation of the Essay

Essays normally have 4 main parts:

I. Introduction

your approach to the question, your understanding of the question and the content you intend to cover. (It is about one-tenth of the essay in length).



Your aim here is to provide a context for the ideas which will be examined in the main body, and there are a number of ways of doing this. For example, many essay titles include terms which will require careful definition, and this should be done in the introduction so as to lead onto more detailed analysis later. Similarly, some titles might refer to expressions of established opinion on the topic concerned. A brief interpretation here can pave the way for more detailed examination of the useful arguments later.

The essay may also require a space/time location to provide a brief introduction to where and when the ideas discussed in the main body came about. This may be particularly relevant to essays on literary, sociological, historical, political or economic issues which can often be introduced through brief references to related events / activities / speeches / groups / movements.

2. Main body

*in paragraph form. Each paragraph should contain a theme or topic, backed up by supporting arguments and analysis. You should include other writer's ideas and arguments, but you **must** acknowledge the source or you are guilty of plagiarism. (See below). You need to analyse the material and give your views.*

This is your opportunity to demonstrate skills in selecting, organising, interpreting and analysing material relevant to the question. As discussed above, it is important to maintain a logical and coherent structure to your ideas, and this is where time spent planning will really pay off.

When examining conflicting or controversial ideas, you are required to deal adequately with all relevant ideas, not just those that seem worthy of support. Some questions ask for a personal judgement or the expression of your own opinion. Your individual experience and personal view have a part to play, but alone will be insufficient to form the substance of an essay, and will need to be underpinned by evidence based on your reading and research.

Remember, you are being judged on your ability to weigh up viewpoints on the basis of available evidence, to evaluate source material and to spot flaws in arguments.

The structure of the argument should

- Be consistent.
- Link ideas together.
- Proceed, step-by-step, to a logical conclusion.

The paragraphs that form the main body are structured in this way:

Paragraph 1

Covers the first thing that your introduction said you would address and the first sentence introduces the main idea of the paragraph. Other sentences develop the topic of the paragraph with evidence, details, quotations, references. The end of the paragraph leads to the next paragraph.

Paragraph 2 and following paragraphs

The first sentence links the paragraph to the previous paragraphs, then introduces the main idea of this paragraph. Other sentences develop the topic as before.

3. Conclusion

a summary of the essay, showing the conclusion of your analysis of the evidence presented. (It is about one-tenth of the essay in length).

All essays should lead to a well-founded conclusion, drawing together the ideas examined in the preceding text. Where the title invites the writer to express a personal opinion, this can be presented most fully in the conclusion.

4. References and Bibliography

A bibliography is a list of everything you read for the assignment, whether or not you have directly referred to it in your writing. This is required in addition to your reference list and is always presented in the alphabetical order of author surnames. A reference list is a list of all the sources that you have directly referred to. You only include sources which you have used and you should use a conventional system for citing these sources. (See section 7 for detailed information on layout.)

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The most difficult part of writing an essay is often the building of a clear and logical structure. Tutors frequently comment on essays which are well-researched but fail to establish any logical or coherent progression of ideas. Weakness here inevitably damages the overall effect of the essay, but this can be remedied by devoting sufficient time to planning before putting pen to paper. This may seem like a chore, but in fact will save you time in the long run. Think of all the time wasted waiting for inspiration, wondering what to write after the first paragraph, then the second.

Once you have a clear idea of the material you intend to cover, this can be broken down into sections and sub-sections. This should help to guide your reading, aid notetaking, and will be invaluable preparation when you come to write your essay.

The Final Stage

By now you couldn't be blamed for wanting to call it a day, but research shows that time spent on a final review can reap notable rewards in terms of both content and presentation. This also forms an important part of the learning process: reviewing and reflecting on your own work are important habits to develop. Again the benefits will be noticeable in the long-term, as reviewing at this stage will help commit the subject matter to memory and make it easier to remember in exams. Check that the content is organised and presented in a logical and coherent manner to provide an adequate response to the question, looking out for gaps in the content, inaccurate information and incomplete analysis. This is also an opportunity to proofread for spelling mistakes and grammatical errors. (See below for tips on punctuation.)

If using a word-processor, use spell-checker. Check your grammar and punctuation. Make sure you read it through and that you understand it. Make a copy - if using a computer be sure to save on to a floppy disk and keep it safe.

Style

Academic writing style is more careful and considered than everyday writing (as, for example, in letters) and, obviously, more considered than everyday speech. Academic language tends to:

- Use formal English.
- Be precise and accurate – not chatty!

- Be cautious rather than very direct or bold (use terms such as 'appears to', 'may', 'seems to' etc.)
- Be careful and clear in establishing links between ideas, evidence and judgements.
- Be concise, edit out unnecessary words: [A book called] *Study Skills*.
- Take care to distinguish facts from opinions.
- Be objective rather than emotional or rhetorical (avoid terms such as 'nice', 'natural', 'wonderful').
- Avoid sweeping claims or statements.
- Avoid using colloquialisms.
- Avoid all abbreviations such as 'dept' for department or 'didn't' for 'did not', 'they're' for 'they are', 'e.g.' for 'example'.
- Avoid personal pronouns such as 'I'/'we' and 'you'. Instead use 'It can be seen that', 'There are a number of' etc.

Making a good impression on your reader through careful proofreading and attention to accuracy and style is very important. The reader who feels that care has been taken with the work is more likely to be sympathetic to the content. They will not be irritated and distracted by errors in presentation and can give their attention to the argument being presented. Never skimp or compromise on proofreading and editing and always allow time for this.

ESSAY CHECKLIST

Use this checklist to check your draft and to help you try to address all the requirements:

The Question

- Have you answered the question/title which is actually set? ☐
- Is everything you have written relevant to that question? ☐

Paragraphs

- Is the essay written in paragraphs? ☐
- Is the length of each about right? ☐
- Does each paragraph contain only one main idea? ☐
- Does each link with preceding or subsequent content? ☐

Sequencing

- Have you used signposts and linking expressions frequently? ☐
- Have you supported general points/claims with examples? ☐
- Are your different points, ideas, examples clearly expressed and separated? ☐

Ideas

- Have you defined important ideas or concepts which you have used? ☐

Introduction and conclusion

- Does the introduction clearly introduce your essay? ☐
- Does the introduction explain your approach? ☐
- Does the conclusion refer back to the introduction? ☐
- Is the conclusion strong? ☐

References

- Are quotes tied into your main argument? ☐
- Have you given the reference for all quotes used? ☐
- Are the references in the bibliography? ☐
- Have you used the recommended system e.g., *Harvard*? ☐

Of course, you won't get everything right on the first, second or third time! But, knowing what you are trying to achieve should help you make improvements each time. The main thing is to read through your work and make sure you understand completely what you are trying to say - if you can't, the tutor won't be able to!

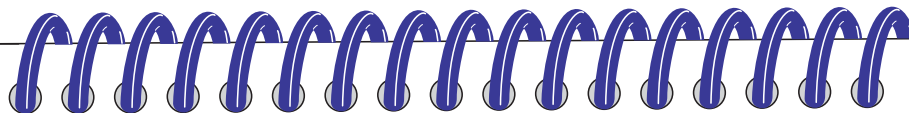


- If you read your work out loud, you will spot the places where it is not fluent.

WRITING REPORTS

Business and scientific reports are formal documents. A report should be concise, well organised, using headings, sub-headings, sections, and easy to follow. Sections should be numbered: - major section 1,2,3 etc. - first level of sub-section 1.1, 1.2 etc.

Report format:



- **Title page** - subject of the report, author, date.
- **Terms of reference** - who ordered the report, when and why, any conditions.
- **Contents page** - all section numbers and titles, using exactly the same wording as in the report.
- **Abstract** - brief summary of report - task, summary of conclusions and recommendations.
- **Introduction** - background information.
- **Main body of report** - findings, description, facts, opinions, etc. This must be well structured.
- **Conclusion** - summary of results.
- **Recommendations** - usually in the form of a list.
- **Appendices** (not always necessary) - additional details, tables, graphs, detailed analysis. These must be numbered and cross referenced in the text.
- **Glossary** (not always necessary) - explanation of any specialist terms.
- **Bibliography** - references to any books, journals, etc. which were used either for background reading, or directly quoted in the report. They should be arranged alphabetically by the author's name.
- **The reference** should include author, date of publication, title, edition, place of publication, publisher.

EXAMS

For most students, an exam is the one form of assessment that causes the most worry. Yet the expectation of the difficulty of doing exams often far exceeds the reality.

Exams can be useful. They:

- Encourage you to read widely so that you are more knowledgeable about your subject as a whole.
- Ensure that you are the author of the work being assessed.
- Enable the lecturer to compare individual student performances across the subject thereby enabling the assessment to be moderated fairly.

In order to maximise your chances of passing exams, you will need to:

- Overcome **exam anxiety**.
- Engage in adequate **exam preparation**.
- Develop appropriate strategies to use when **sitting the exam**.

Exam Anxiety/stress

Overcoming exam anxiety involves more than just developing specific strategies to use during your exam. It involves knowing what **examiners expect** (or want to assess).

Feeling ‘stressed out’ is one of the most common student complaints at university. Stress is a normal reaction to the exercise of our mental and physical capacities. However, our stress level tolerance decreases if our capacities are challenged and stretched, the challenges involve unknown properties, we are faced with the unexpected.

There are a number of **physical symptoms** that alert us to a stressful situation:

- Our heart starts to race, signalling an increase in the production of adrenalin.
- Our breathing becomes deeper.
- We are edgier than usual.
- It is important to recognise that these symptoms are produced automatically. They arise whenever we are confronted with a daunting task that will test our physical and mental capacities - especially if that task involves something new, unexpected, or unknown.

Fear of the unknown

With exams, the fear of the unknown or unexpected is likely to dominate your thinking. You will probably be asking yourself questions like:

- Will I pass?
- Do I know enough?
- Will I be able to remember everything?
- What if they ask something I do not know?
- The more you think about these sorts of questions, the more likely it will be that your physical response will be an increase in anxiety leading to increased feelings of being ‘stressed out’.

Once you have recognised the onset of rising stress levels, it is necessary to do something about them, before they affect your study abilities. What you need is good preparation.

Exam Preparation

Succeeding with exams requires adequate preparation involving:

- Effort.
- Perseverance.
- Strategically organised study habits.

Inspiration and luck have very little to do with passing exams. In preparing for exams, the earlier you start, the better. If exams are part of your assessment regime, then exam preparation should be an important part of your study habits throughout the semester. Exams test your ability to recall information in particular ways. Consequently, your revision and exam preparation should be directed towards practising and testing your ability to recall information. This will involve maximising your concentration span as well as your memory techniques.

**TOP TIPS**

- Give your revision priority, put on hold other tasks until you have finished your scheduled study time.
- Make sure that your study space is as uncluttered as possible (remove physical distractions).
- Before you start, do some body stretches or exercises to loosen up your body physically.
- Set yourself clear and specific short-term study goals.
- Start from what you know and gradually incorporate more difficult material as you go.
- Work on a number of different subjects or tasks for a short time (e.g., 20 to 30 minutes per subject or task).
- Take (short) regular breaks.

Exam Reconnaissance

Find out as much information about your exam as possible. This will help you with your planning of a revision timetable. What type of exam is it likely to be? What other information will you need to know? Key questions to find answers for are:

When will the exam be held?

Usually your university will have a set period at the end of each semester in which final exams are held. However, there may be individual variations between different subjects that might need to be taken into account.

The timetable for end of semester exams is not your lecturers' responsibility and so they will probably not know the exact date of the exam for their subject until a draft timetable is published.

Where will the exam be held?

Make sure you know:

- How to get to the exam location.
- How long it will take you to travel there from home.

How much time will be available to complete the exam?

The time available to complete an exam will give you some indication of how much detail you will be expected to produce.

If you have some particular worry or problem that might make it difficult to complete the exam within the allotted time then seek advice from the Student Advice Centre.

How will the exam be structured?

This will depend on the type of exam. However your lecturer should be able to give you information about:

- The type of exam (i.e., closed book, open book, oral, practical).
- The number of questions.
- The style of questions.
- Whether there is a choice of questions.

What can you take into the exam room?

This refers to equipment like calculators, tables of formulae, and other information. This will largely depend on the type of exam.

Are there any past exam papers that you can consult?

Consulting past exam papers is an important means of preparing for exams. Much of the information concerning structure and format can be found from past, but relevant exam papers.

However, do not assume that your forthcoming exam will necessarily be anything like the one the year before. Lecturers change their approaches. Quite often, the lecturer for a subject might not be the same as the lecturer for that subject in previous years.

How will marks be allocated for problem-solving questions?

Problem-solving questions often require you to demonstrate your understanding of the method of arriving at an answer. This means that marks will probably be awarded for your working out as well as for your answer.

What percentage of the total marks for the subject or unit is the exam worth?

In most subjects, lecturers will indicate the assessment requirements in the subject outline. If there is an exam in your subject, knowing how much it counts towards your final grade in a subject helps you to plan your study and revision timetable.

Health Issues

Even more than other forms of assessment, the exam process has the potential to lead you to neglect your health. This is because of the misguided belief held by many students that in order to prepare adequately for an exam it is necessary to adjust their lifestyle in a negative fashion in order to ‘cram’ in as much information as possible.

This usually involves:

- Skipping meals (or not eating proper meals).
- Interrupting your normal exercise routine.
- Altering your sleep patterns.

This usually means that you will become de-energised or even seriously ill just when you need to be at your peak.

To maintain your physical and mental efficiency, especially around exam time, you will need to maintain sensible eating, sleeping, exercise and leisure habits, especially in the lead-up to your exams you will maximise your chances of maintaining your energy levels, staying healthy, and enhancing your concentration.

ASSESSMENT

All university degrees are divided into a number of different classifications (a similar idea to the use of grades at A-level and GCSE). They are as follows:

- Weighted average of 70% (and above) 1st class
- Weighted average of 60-69% Upper second class (2:1)
- Weighted average of 50-59% Lower second class (2:2)
- Weighted average of 40-49% Third class

You should look in the course information for the subject that you are studying to see exactly what is expected of work which is graded in each of these categories. Try and assess and revise your own work against the assessment criteria that you are given. These are the criteria by which you will be marked.

The kinds of criteria commonly used are along these lines:

Grade A (First Class)

- The work will be distinctive in originality, liveliness, enthusiasm.
- There will be comprehensive knowledge and understanding based on thorough research.
- It will be directly relevant to topic.
- It will have a strong controlling argument.
- It will be communicated effectively with appropriate language and clear argument and impeccably presented.

Grade B (2.1)

- The work will show some independence of thought.
- It will have good knowledge and understanding of relevant material based on wide reading.
- There will be some grasp of wider issues.
- There will be well-constructed and clear argument.
- There will be a sound synthesis of different interpretations.
- It will be appropriately presented.

Grade C (2.2)

- The work will be straightforward in its understanding of topic (rather than critical and sophisticated).
- There will be a competent grasp of central issues.
- There will be sufficient reading but a tendency to reproduce ideas uncritically.
- The work will be sound and careful, although restricted and descriptive.
- It will be competently written.

Grade D (3)

- The work will show basic knowledge and understanding.
- Most main points will be covered but it will be heavily dependent on received opinion.
- The range of resources will be very limited.
- It will have a sense of purpose but may lose sight of controlling argument.
- There may be carelessness in presentation and simplicity in language.

PUNCTUATION

Why use it? Its purpose is to guide the reader in the natural pauses in writing. It is also there to show how the grammar of a sentence is supposed to work: a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence and a full stop at the end.

Punctuating your sentence **may involve**: a selection of the following:

● Colon (:)

Is most often used to introduce a quotation or a list.

● Full stop (.)

Use full stops more than you expect to. When in doubt, your instinct should always plump for a full stop.

● Semicolon (;)

Represents a pause longer than a comma but shorter than a full stop. (If in doubt about its use don't use it.)

It is used between clauses when the second clause expands or explains the first e.g., *Neither of them moved; they waited to see if the intruder made a quick exit.*

It is also used before clauses which begin with 'nevertheless', 'therefore', 'even so', and "for instance" e.g., *He looked before he leaped; even so he landed in the water.*

It is used to mark off a series of phrases or clauses which themselves contain commas. e.g., *You will need the following ingredients: four eggs, preferably size 3; 4oz caster sugar; a few drops of vanilla essence; and 2oz almonds, which must be ground.*

● Question mark (?)

Use a question mark every time there is a genuine direct question. That means *Are you going?* but not *I asked if he was going?* (wrong because it is a reported question).

● Dashes (-)

Use dashes but don't overdo them. You can use a pair of dashes - in place of brackets - or a single dash to mark a break in the sentence before a punch line or a throwaway remark: *In life, two things are never with us - death and taxis.*

● Apostrophes (')

They should not be used to make things plural e.g., *1990's, MP's HQ's.*

The general rule is: if something belongs to someone you write *someone's* or e.g., *the student's.*

If it belongs to several people (*the students*), you write *the students'*. Plurals like *people* and *children*, that aren't made with an s, take apostrophes i.e., *children's.*

Apostrophes are also shown where letters are missed out - *can't play, won't play. It's* is short for *it is*. Beware of *: its*, (meaning "of it") *yours, hers, ours, theirs*, and *whose*. None of them takes an apostrophe.

● Commas (,)

Commas, like buses, often come in pairs. It is wrong to write *The reason is as it always was, to save money*. Two commas should be used, like brackets, either side of the phrase *as it always was*.

The test is whether, grammatically, the sentence would hold up if the section between the commas were removed. The common mistake is to forget the second comma.

Commas are needed, and are not optional, when someone or something is being addressed. *Kiss me, Hardy* must take the comma after *me*. *Yes Minister* should have *Yes, Minister*.

Pairs of commas should be used when *however*, *say*, *meanwhile* and *for instance* are interjected into sentences - *he might be paid, say, £50,000 a year*.

At the beginning of a sentence, these words or phrases need to be cordoned off with a single comma - *However, investigations into..., For instance, if we look at....*

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Commas are used to mark off separate items in a list, except between the last two items. You can put a comma in before and if it's needed to make the sentence clear - *Goods are transported by lorry, horse and cart, and even handcart.*

A strong adjective usually takes commas after each one except the last - *old, crabby, pedantic Dr Johnson.*

● Quotation marks (“ ”)

Use double to enclose direct speech. Use a colon, not a comma before quotes - *Mr Smith said: “This is good news for all poor students.”*

Use a comma after quotes (before the second quotation marks) - *“It will help many students,” said Jim.*

Quotations direct from a book or journal also need to have double quotation marks (“ ”) - *Davis et al. (1991, p243) stated that “Equilibrium is the sense which tells you when your body is balanced and when it is tipping, turning or inverting.”* Unless the length of the quotation is more than three lines of your text, in which case it is indented and no quotation marks are necessary.

● Brackets ()

The use of brackets (whose technical term is parenthesis) should be kept to a minimum. They are used to indicate a supplementary remark, or a qualification of some sort. Grammatically they work like commas, but the remarks inside the brackets tend to be less important than those inside commas.

Brackets are *always* used in pairs.

If the brackets surround an entire sentence then the full stop at the end of the sentence stays within the brackets. (*This is the procedure you should follow.*) If the brackets only surround part of the sentence, the full stop goes outside. *This is the procedure you should follow (under normal circumstances).*

● Square brackets [like these]

Square brackets are used to indicate your changes or your own comments on somebody else's writing. *The report that 25000 had been killed in battle [a figure shown to be greatly exaggerated] changed the course of the war.*

WORD PROCESSING AND FILING INFORMATION

Computer word processing packages now enable you to present your work to give a much better impression – indeed most university courses now require assignments to be word processed and consider word processing to be a valuable transferable skill. You will be able to lay out your work using headings, and tables and to check spelling and grammar, count words and number pages. The greatest benefit of using the computer to write your work is the help with drafting and editing. You can correct your work easily, add details later, and change the order with the copy and paste facility.



- **Be careful when using the spell check facility. Firstly, make sure that you use the English option, not USA. Do not trust the checker to find all your mistakes as it will not alert you to the misspelling of a word which is in itself correctly spelt, but is wrong in your context. For example, the words to, too, two, are commonly misused. You must always read your own work carefully as well to check for accuracy.**

Filing

The computer allows you to store your work in a filing system so that you can reproduce it and refer back to it easily. It is important to set up an organised system so that you can track your information. Every time you begin a new piece of work you should open a new computer file with a clear name that indicates the exact content of the file (the piece of work) and not just a general name. For example, if you need to find a piece of English work several months later it will not help to have it labelled ‘English essay’ as there will probably be several by then. An accurate label such as ‘Dickens essay August 2001’ will be more easily identified.



If you are making several drafts, label each one separately indicating if it is the first, second, or third draft and so on and save these in separate files.

- *A file will usually consist of one essay, or one report, or one set of notes.*

Collect these files into a directory. A directory is like a filing drawer containing smaller files. A directory is for grouping files relating to a particular subject together, and the facility is called a ‘file manager’.

- *A directory will consist of related files.*

Save your work every few minutes.

By using the save facility on the computer. If the computer goes wrong, you will not have lost your hour or more of work. (You may be able to set the computer up to save the file automatically every few minutes.)

Regularly copy the file on to a floppy disk.

Saving your files onto a floppy disk is a further safeguard against losing information due to an event such as a computer virus causing the system to crash. Label your floppy disks clearly according to the names of the files they contain and the date. Use a different disk for each subject. Keep them safely in a disk box.

Print out your work to produce a ‘hard copy’.

It is easier to proof-read printed text than text on a screen. Keeping hard (paper) copies of your work is an additional safeguard.

PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is using the work of others without acknowledging your source of information or inspiration. It is treated very seriously in Higher Education and plagiarised work is usually disqualified.

How to Avoid Plagiarising

Always note down exactly the source of information when you are making notes. The title, author, page number, publisher and date, and place of publication should be clearly written at the top of your page of notes.

If you are to claim that a piece of work is your own, then you must acknowledge the source of any ideas that are not your own. You must also show the source of any direct quotations – these are word for word quotations placed within parenthesis “ ”. You must also acknowledge the source of indirect quotations – that is material that you are quoting but which has been changed into your own words, paraphrased, or summarised.

You must be careful to record the sources of all your information when you take notes. If your work is not adequately referenced, you may be accused of plagiarism and have your work disqualified.

COMPILING REFERENCE LISTS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

References/Notes

There are two standard conventional academic formats for referencing work.

1. The Harvard (Author, date, page no.) System

In the social, and other, sciences you will find that the Harvard system is favoured. With this system you include the author's surname, year of publication, and page number, using brackets, within the body of your work and immediately following the quoted material.

Here is a fictional example of referencing in the text of an assignment (in reality, of course, you wouldn't normally get quite so many references in just a few sentences!):

Semiotics is an analytical technique that has a long history, as Balton et al. (1996, 124) convincingly argue. Semiotics can be very revealing when applied to contemporary television genres ('Missing the Boat' 1999, 36). Indeed, recently Eyerman (2000, 535-6) further extended the technique, in the process significantly raising its profile.

List of References

Notice these points:

- The compiler of the list below has opted for the common convention of putting titles of the relevant volumes (book or periodical) in italics.
- The list does **NOT** include the numbers of the pages that you actually consulted (you insert those when you put the reference within your written text – see example above): the only page numbers included in this list are the first and last pages of articles in academic journals.
- The list uses ‘a’ and ‘b’ to get round the problem that Warren has written two pieces in 1994. The corresponding references in the text will be ‘Warren 1994a’ or ‘Warren 1994b’ so that it is immediately clear which piece is being referred to!

At the end of your work you will list the full details of each of these references in a list of references.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Ballton, A. et al., 1996 | <i>Television and Politics</i> , London, UCL Press. |
| Essed, P., 1998 | ‘Gender and Cross-Ethnic Coalition-Building’ in Hertz H. et al. eds., <i>Racism and Gender in Europe</i> , London, Pluto. |
| Everyman, P., 2000 | ‘Social Movements in the West’, <i>Journal of Theory and Society</i> , vol. 18 no. 4 April, pp.531-546. |
| Jankers, P. & Welton, A., 1997 | The Growth of English Regionalism in the 1990s, <i>International Journal of Policy</i> vol. 25 no. 1 January, pp.7-18, also reproduced in: Donna Y. ed., 1999, <i>Readings in Policy Studies</i> , Sydney, Hutchinson. |
| | <i>Missing the Boat – a Study of the Options in Digital Television</i> , 1999, London, BBC, unpublished. |
| Norton, R., 1996 | <i>Soap Operas Worldwide</i> , Media Reports Euro-International, http://www.sbu.ac.uk/newsright/overview/soaps3 (date of access 20 July 2000). |
| O’Michael, R. & Ratansi, L., 2000 | ‘A new Youth Movement Arises’, <i>Guardian</i> , 21 February. |
| The Quotations Page 2000 | Academic Help On-Line Publishing, http://www.worc.ac.uk/ripofflimited/sources (updated 14 April 2000, date of access 21 July 2000). |
| Warren, K., 1994a | ‘Towards an Ecofeminist Peace Politics’, in Warren K. ed., <i>Ecological Feminism</i> , London, Routledge. |
| Warren K, 1994b | ‘Undermining patriarchy’, in Warren K. ed., <i>Ecological Feminism</i> , London, Routledge. |
| | ‘Youth at the Crossroads’, 2000, <i>Guardian</i> , 21 February. |

You will not need a separate bibliography with the Harvard system – your list of references will only include sources which are actually referenced in your work.

2. The British System (numbered)

In the Humanities the British system is favoured. Here you will use a number after the quoted material. This number will relate to a list of numbered references at the foot of the page, or at the end of the piece of work. You will need to repeat the same items on a bibliography. Your reference list will refer to the sources that you have actually cited. Your bibliography may contain information about other sources of information that you have used as background, but have not drawn directly from.

Every reference or quotation should be numbered and supplied with a footnote (bottom of the page) or endnote (list of references at the end, before the bibliography). Footnotes often start at a number one for each new page, but your computer may number footnotes consecutively; endnotes run consecutively up to the total number of references recorded. Whether in endnotes or footnotes, you must give the exact page number and appropriate bibliographical details. See the following list of examples.

Sample References

A list of references at the end of an essay should look like this:

References

1. Fox, R. L., *The Unauthorized Version* (Penguin, 1989), p.78
2. Scholes, R., *Textual Power* (Yale UP, 1985), p.33
3. Barton, A., *The Names of Comedy* (OUP, 1990), p.108
4. Scholes, op.cit., p.67.
5. Sheppard, A., *Aesthetics* (OUP, 1987), pp.88-91
6. Ibid., p.72
7. Fox, R. L., *Pagans and Christians* (Heinemann, 1986), p.109

Notice these points:

- You don't have to space a list of references as you do a bibliography.
- Bracket off the publisher and date.
- Use 'p.' or 'pp.' instead of writing 'page'.
- Use the author's surname with 'op.cit.' when referring to a book already quoted.
- Use 'ibid.' when referring to the book quoted immediately before.
- When quoting from a different book by the same author, write the name as if for the first time, and be careful about using 'op.cit.'!

Quoting and Noting

Here is some further advice on quoting and noting material:

1. Quotations of only a few words should be embedded in your own text, in inverted commas:

If it is true to say that "Machiavelli's loyalty was to the state rather than to the Republic", (9) then we must distinguish precisely what is meant by those two terms.

2. Longer quotations need to be given a separate paragraph indented throughout from your normal margin and with a line of space between it and your text:

The encumbrances of the nineteenth-century stage were quite wrong for Shakespeare. To judge from his self-congratulatory note, Charles Kean's 1857 production of *The Tempest* was just such a travesty:

The scenic appliances of the play are more extensive and complicated nature than has ever been attempted in any theatre in Europe, requiring the aid of one hundred and forty operatives nightly, who, unseen by the audience, are engaged in working the machinery and carrying out the various effects. (5)

The fabric of this vision must have been an unwieldy parody of that presented to Ferdinand and Miranda.....

3. If you quote from a primary text, it is usual to give the line or page reference in brackets after the quotation.
4. Sometimes you will choose close paraphrase rather than direct quotation. Here, too, you must be careful to indicate your source:

As John Russell Brown has pointed out, words spoken by an actor in theatre gain a significance and a relative importance which is totally different from the effect created by the same words on the printed page. (16)

Bibliographies

1. An entry for a book should begin with SURNAME and INITIALS or author(s), then YEAR, then TITLE, then PLACE and name of PUBLISHER. If there are more than three authors, only put the first author, and then put et al. (note the full stop after al. as it is an abbreviation). If the book is a collection of readings, then the author(s)' name(s) should be followed by ed. (or eds.). So, if several authors edit a book, the first author's name will be followed by: et al. eds.

e.g., Ballton, A. et al., 1996 *Television and Politics*, London, UCL Press

2. If a publication (such as a report) does not have an author, begin with the TITLE of the report, then the YEAR, then NAME OF THE ORGANISATION which commissioned the report, then PUBLISHER (if there is one). Similarly, when inserting the reference in the text, simply put the title and the year (if the title is very long, in the text you could perhaps use only the first few words followed by a series of dots.)

e.g., *Missing the Boat – a Study of the Options in Digital Television*, 1999, London, BBC, unpublished.

[An alternative to the above advice: begin with the NAME OF THE ORGANISATION responsible for the report, then the YEAR, etc. – but you must be consistent, i.e., adopt one system and stick to it!].

3. An entry for an article published in a book, should similarly begin with AUTHOR(S) OF THE ARTICLE, YEAR and ARTICLE TITLE, then put the word 'in', and then give full details of the book, starting with name(s) of the editor(s) and then the abbreviation ed. or eds. etc.

e.g., Jankers, P. & Welton, A., 'The Growth of English Regionalism in the 1990s', *International Journal of Policy* vol. 25 no. 1 January, pp.7-18, also reproduced in: Donna Y. ed, 1999, *Readings in Policy Studies*, Sydney, Hutchinson.

4. An entry for an article published in a periodical (journal), should begin with AUTHOR(S), YEAR, and TITLE OF ARTICLE, then the name of the PERIODICAL, then the VOLUME number and part, then the MONTH, then the first and last PAGE NUMBERS of the whole article (NB not the pages you actually looked at – these will be noted in the actual reference in the text). Note that because this is a periodical, this time you do not need to insert the word 'in', and you don't need to include details of the publisher. Use the abbreviation p. for 'page', and pp. for 'pages'.

e.g., Everyman, P., 2000 'Social Movements in the West', *Journal of Theory and Society*, vol. 18 no. 4 April, pp.531-546.

5. To list a web page, mirror as closely as possible the format of a printed source. In the list at the end, give AUTHOR, then YEAR, then PAGE TITLE, then PUBLISHING ORGANISATION, then WWW address, then (if known) put 'date of publication' followed by the PRECISE DATE, then the phrase 'date of access', and then put the precise date you accessed the page (this may be on your printout!). However, usually there is no author, so start with PAGE TITLE [or, if you're using the alternative system, the organisation] then YEAR.

e.g., Norton, R., 1996 *Soap Operas Worldwide*, Media Reports Euro-International,
<http://www.sbu.ac.uk/newsright/overview/soaps3> (date of access 20 July 2000).

'Moving On':

section 7:

ACADEMIC WRITING

section 1

section 2

section 3

section 4

section 5

section 6

section 7

section 8

6. For a newspaper article, in the list at the end give AUTHOR, then YEAR, then ARTICLE TITLE, then NAME OF NEWSPAPER, then PRECISE DATE. If there is no author, start with the ARTICLE TITLE, then YEAR, then NEWSPAPER, then DATE.

e.g., Youth at the Crossroads, 2000, *Guardian*, 21 February.

7. Use the phrase 'cited in' to reference a source which you have not read yourself, but which you have found mentioned in another publication. For example, a typical Harvard system entry in the text might read (Stratta 1996, cited in Benjamin 1999:103); the list of references at the end would then need to include the details of Benjamin 1999, but not those for Stratta.

Note that the phrase 'cited in' means 'mentioned in'; where you actually find a whole article or long extract in an edited volume, do not use 'cited in' – use the word 'in' (see 3 and 4 above).

[An alternative to the above guidance; in the list at the end, put the full details of the item which you are mentioning (you'll be able to get these from the bibliography at the end of your source) and then put cited in, immediately followed by the details of the item you actually consulted.]

Here are some useful ways of introducing material that you are quoting:

- Writing in 1964, R argued that '.....'
- It has been suggested by P that '.....'
- Nevertheless, as J notes, '.....'
- According to Y '.....'
- Referring to '.....' S states that '.....'

Yes, I know this is complicated but it will become habit after a while!



- **Check which system of referencing is required by your tutor.**
- **Remember, note all sources that you have used.**
- **Only the sources quoted from – directly or indirectly – are included on a reference list, or footnotes/endnotes.**
- **In the British (numbered footnote) system, list the same sources, but also additional sources which you read but did not use, in a Bibliography.**
- **Your Bibliography must always be in the alphabetical order of author surname.**
- **You must always either underline, or use italics, for the titles of books whenever you give a title.**



WORKSHEET 7

PROOFREADING

Nothing detracts from students' work more than careless errors. This is your chance to play the role of the marker and see if you can spot the errors in this part of a carelessly written student essay.

You should practise this kind of proofreading on your own work and may find your grades improve quite dramatically.

The process of law is slow. In court your hope lies with a dozen of your fellow citizens brought together at random to hear what the prosecution and defense has to say and to determine whether they think the prosecution makes such a strong case that your innocence is denied.

Your case might instead be tried by barristers and judges alone. These are people drawn from the upper classes. They spend much of their lives considering the fate of those brought before them. By contrast, a jury as a group of people who lead ordinary lives and can bring their experiences to the court room. The right to a trial by jury was established by the magna carta for the protection of accused people. The jury does not decide the guilt or innocence of the accused. The accused is presumed innocent. What happens is that the prosecution tries to persuade the jury to overturn the presumption of innocence the jury tries the case of the prosecution. The defense points out flaws in the prosecution case and points the jurors attention to other possibilities so that they can test whether the prosecution has persuaded them that their case is beyond reasonable doubt. The jury must not merely believe that accused is guilty but it must do so without any doubts. It is therefore hard for the prosecution too prove guilt and this is why the police say that the odds are against them in court. This is because the system is geared towards protecting innocence, even at the cost of letting the guilty go free.

How many errors have you spotted?

Where do you stand as a proofreader on the scale given below?

- ☐ **20: Excellent**
- ☐ **17-19: Could improve on this**
- ☐ **0-16: Need to be much more careful**

section 1

section 2

section 3

section 4

section 5

section 6

section 7

section 8

'Moving On':

section 7:

ACADEMIC WRITING

section 1

section 2

section 3

section 4

section 5

section 6

section 7

section 8

The corrections are in bold with punctuation underlined:

The process of law is slow. In court your hope lies with a dozen of your fellow citizens, brought together at random to **hear** what the prosecution and **defence** has to say, and to determine whether they think the prosecution makes such a strong case that your innocence is denied.

The case might instead be tried by barristers and judges alone. These are people drawn from the upper classes. They spend much of **their** lives considering the fate of those **brought** before them.

By contrast, a jury **is** a group of people who lead ordinary lives and can bring their experiences to the **courtroom**. The right to a trial by jury was established by the **Magna Carta** for the protection of **accused** people. The jury does not decide the guilt or **innocence** of the accused. The accused is presumed innocent. What happens is that the prosecution tries to persuade the jury to overturn the presumption of innocence; the jury tries the case of the prosecution. The **defence** points out flaws in the prosecution case and points the jurors' attention to other possibilities so that they can test whether the prosecution has persuaded them that their case is beyond reasonable doubt. The jury must not merely believe that **the** accused is guilty, but it must do so without any doubts. It is therefore hard for the prosecution **to** prove guilt and this is why the police say that the **odds** are against them in court. This is because the system is **geared** towards protecting innocence, even at the cost of letting the guilty go free.

This essay has been corrected for spelling, punctuation and paragraphing. You might like to devise a suitable question for this answer, and to write the missing introductory paragraph.